

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 144 371

FL 008 856

AUTHOR Baetens Beardsmore, Hugo
TITLE An Investigation into Bilingual Education for Children from Favored Socio-Economic Backgrounds. Problemes linguistiques des enfants de travailleurs migrants (Linguistic Problems of the Children of Migrant Workers).
PUB DATE 77
NOTE 23p.; Paper prepared for the Colloquium of AIMAV in collaboration with the Commission of European Communities (10th, Brussels, Belgium, 1977); Association Internationale pour la Recherche et la Diffusion des Methodes: Audio-Visuelles et Structuro-Globales
EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.83 HC-\$1.67 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Affluent Youth; Biculturalism; *Bilingual Education; Bilingualism; Disadvantaged Youth; *Elementary Secondary Education; English; French; Language Instruction; *Language Programs; *Program Descriptions; Second Language Learning; *Socioeconomic Background; Socioeconomic Status
IDENTIFIERS *Belgium

ABSTRACT

The investigation reported sought to discover: (1) whether the problems faced by children of favored socio-economic backgrounds residing in countries other than those of origin are the same as or different from those faced by less favored groups, and (2) whether the techniques and programs provided for these privileged children can give any insights for similar programs adapted for children from less favored groups. Three schools in Belgium were selected as investigation sites, and an open-ended questionnaire was used for the basis of the enquiry. All questions were asked orally during interviews with staff members, and, where possible, interviews were followed up by observation of the teaching program. All three schools were attended by children from upper-middle and middle classes. For purposes of the report, a bilingual program is defined as one that gives more attention to a second language than is normally the case in school curricula. The program and curricula of each school are described, and solutions to bilingual education are seen to range from transitional programs to balanced bilingual programs to the use of the second language for social studies. All schools claimed that a greater tolerance for diversity developed as a result of bilingual programs. (CLK)

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

*m. de grève
e. rosseel (éds.)*

**problèmes linguistiques
des enfants
de travailleurs migrants**

**10^e Colloque de l'AIMAV
en collaboration avec la
Commission des Communautés
européennes**

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Hugo Baetens-Beardsmore

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND
THE ERIC SYSTEM CONTRACTORS."

EXTRAIT — OFFPRINT

AIMAV

Bruxelles
1977

DIDIER

ED144371

F008856

HUGO BAETENS BEARDSMORE
University of Brussels (V.U.B.)

AN INVESTIGATION INTO BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN FROM FAVOURED SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUNDS

Parents of children from favoured socio-economic backgrounds often take a deep interest in the education of their offspring. Since they may be in a position to select and even pay for an education which they may consider as an investment for the child's future they frequently do so on criteria based on individual requirements or on quality. Parents who opt for some form of bilingual/bicultural education for their children must have particular reasons which merit investigation.

Children who receive this kind of education often reside in countries other than those of origin and may therefore be considered as the children of migrant workers, though diplomats, business executives and the like are rarely considered as migrant workers in the generally accepted sense of the term. As a social group they have hardly been investigated, rather surprisingly when one considers their numerical importance in any urban setting of international significance.

The purpose of this investigation was two-fold: first, to discover whether the problems faced by this sort of "immigrant" child are the same as, or different from those faced by less-favoured groups; second, to discover whether the techniques and programmes provided for these privileged children can give any insights for similar programmes adapted for children from less-favoured groups.

METHOD

It was decided not to investigate the European school or the International Schools associated with such organisations as S.H.A.P.E. and N.A.T.O. since it was felt that sufficient information is already available in connection with these establishments (cf. for example, RIPOCHE).

Four schools were selected in Belgium, based on information gathered from the English language press in articles designed to advise newly arrived residents on different establishments within the public or private sector (*Brussels Times*). The schools selected were stated to pay particular attention to language in their curriculum and were chosen to represent the whole range of age groups, though all differed from each other in organisation, structure, etc.

Upon investigation it was found that press information concerning one of the schools was misleading as the establishment in question did not appear to provide a particular programme for the integration of non-native born children. Consequently, this school has not been included in this report. A slight problem arose with a second school due to a change of headship and the engagement of a completely new staff during the course of this investigation. Two reports were made for this school, one before and one after the change. Moreover, this particular establishment cannot, strictly speaking, be considered as running a bilingual programme, though it has been felt worthy of mention since its very existence is due to a back-lash effect of problems due to a bilingual environment. This school will be discussed as a case apart.

An open-ended questionnaire was used for the basis of the enquiry (cf. Annexe), all questions being put orally during interviews with staff. The same questions were put both to the heads of the schools and members of the staff and where possible were followed up by observation of the teaching programme.

THE SCHOOLS

All three schools retained for the purposes of this enquiry contained children from the upper-middle and middle classes with almost no exceptions. One of the schools which was not particularly aimed at foreign populations was entirely free and could possibly have included children from lower income-group backgrounds. However, an apparent process of self-selection accounted for the fact that lower income-bracket parents from the immediate vicinity of this totally subsidised establishment did not choose to send their children to this school, in spite of its widely established prestige in academic prowess. Only a few children from the lower end of the middle income bracket were present in this particular school.

Of the other two schools, one was nominally free but requested parental contributions on a sliding scale in accordance with the child's age; these were intended to cover several of the school's activities, some of which were connected with the bilingual programme. The third school was entirely fee paying and consequently run on the same financial basis as similar non-subsidised schools elsewhere in the world.

The three schools involved were:

- School A — A primary school for children between the ages of 4-9, fee-paying, situated in Brussels;
- School B — A primary and secondary school (together with a kindergarten) for children between the ages of 3-18, subsidised though with parental contributions for certain activities, situated in the countryside near Brussels;
- School C — A secondary school (the primary section of this establishment was not involved in the bilingual programme and therefore not taken into account) run by Jesuits for boys only between the ages of 12-18, situated in Brussels.

As will be seen from Table 1 the three schools differ widely, particularly in size, although the number of pupils per class remains similar. Two of the schools were mixed while school C was for boys only. Two were interdenominational whereas school C was a Catholic school. Schools A and B were created partly in response to a need for educating children of foreign parents residing permanently or temporarily in Belgium while school C was a standard Belgian school with few foreign children. It differed from other Belgian schools in that it had a syllabus which included a bilingual element covering Belgium's two major national languages, French and Dutch.

THE PROGRAMMES

Before discussing the different forms of teaching presented in the schools it is perhaps necessary to indicate what is to be understood by a bilingual programme. In the strictest interpretation of the terms a truly bilingual programme should establish equilibrium between the amount of time devoted to and number of subjects taught in either of the languages involved. (This leaves aside, of course, the almost unfeasible target of reduplication in both languages of all subjects, based on the assumption that material learnt in one language is unlikely to be equally accountable

TABLE 1

School	Type	Fees p.a. 1976	No. of Pupils	No. of Classes	Average no. of Pupils per class	Languages Used	Nationality of Staff	Nationality of Pupils
A	Primary, based on British sys- tem, mixed sex.	55.000 B.F.	68	4	± 18	English French	5 British 1 Fr-speaking Belgian	65 % British 20 % American 15 % Commonwealth and Other
B	Kindergarten, Primary and Secondary, mixed sex.	Sliding scale : 12.500- 24.000 B.F.	330	23	± 18	French English Dutch* German* Spanish*	48 Belgian 6 English 2 German	50 % English-speakers 50 % French-speakers
C	Secondary, Boys only.	—	1.025 (± 170)	37 (3)	± 25	French Dutch English* Latin* Greek*	118 Belgians (18 Belgians)	75 % French-speakers 25 % Dutch-speakers (Majority Belgians)

Languages Used—This indicates the languages involved in the bilingual programme. Other languages taught are marked *.
For School C the figures in brackets represent the numbers involved in the bilingual programme.

in the other). Most experts in bilingual education find this equal balance difficult to achieve and in fact none of the schools investigated in Belgium made any attempt at equilibrium. For the purposes of this report a bilingual programme will be considered as one that gives more pre-eminence to a second language than is normally the case in school-curricula. This definition allows for comparison with many of the situations mentioned as functioning in different countries of the world in R. Titone, *Le bilinguisme précoce*, 149-330.

The overriding consideration that determined this lack of balance were legal constraints impeding any attempt at equilibrium. The same argument also determined the choice of subjects offered in a second-language since it would appear that Belgian law does not allow for scientific subjects to be taught in a state-subsidised school in any other language than that which is the officially recognised one for the school.

Although schools B and C had differing conceptions about the implementation of their bilingual programme both claimed to strive after the same basic goals — both considered the bilingual element as an enriching factor in transcultural human understanding. This purely impressionistic observation has been confirmed by Lambert's research (1972). Both schools claimed, moreover, that at the end of the bilingual programme pupils had gained positive attitudes to the culture and representatives of the second language and that these attitudes increased as the pupils progressed through the schools. (These positive observations do not imply that more mundane considerations, such as better career-prospects for their children, did not determine parental choice of the particular establishment).

In school B most teaching took place in French, although about 50% of the children were native speakers of English, the other 50% native speakers of French. However, all children received English lessons from their entry into the school, whether at the kindergarten level or at some later stage. At the kindergarten level play activities took place in French and English, the children mixing together at all times except for 1 period per day when the English speakers would have an English lesson, the French speakers a French lesson. These took the form of recitation, repetition, singing, etc., appropriate to the age group. Language instruction in French or English took up about 4 hours per week.

Upon entry to the primary school all children received 4 hours of English per week (the amount of time devoted to this language throughout the school) though selection took place according to the native language of

the child. This pattern was observed through the whole curriculum into the final year of secondary education. Although all children received English lessons those with English as a native language went to special classes where they were taught in the same way as they would be in Britain. French speakers were taught English as a foreign-language according to their level of ability. Three levels of English were available for the French speakers ; sufficiently strong pupils joined the native speaker class, others went to an intermediate or a lower level. For the English speakers the aim was to enable pupils to take part in English language examinations set in Britain (i.e. 'O' and 'A' level English and French) while at the same time preparing them for the normal Belgian examinations via the ordinary school programme. For the French speaking children this was not the goal, though the possibility was open to a few exceptionally strong pupils who had integrated the native speaker class.

All English teachers in the school were native speakers of the language from Britain, those teaching the English speakers with recognised training according to the British system, those teaching the French speakers with experience in teaching English as a foreign language. (The two German teachers were also native speakers, although German was not given as much importance as English in the curriculum). Materials used for language teaching were in accordance with the level of the work, e.g. the native speakers were given the same materials as they would have used in British schools, the non-native learners of English were given specialised materials for English as a foreign language.

Although the French speakers were assigned to English classes according to their level of ability this was not the case for the English speakers who received French together with their opposite numbers. As French was the dominant language of the school it was not considered feasible to organise separate tuition in French for English speakers who would in any case receive all their non-language lessons through French. However, new non-French speakers with difficulties were provided with an opportunity for extra individualised tuition in French if they were seen to have problems in assimilating into the environment.

Linguistic achievement after tuition via the programme described was realistic and encouraging. The native-speakers of English compared favourably with British children in England, though teachers claimed that their range of vocabulary in English tended to be slightly more restricted than that of their peer group in Britain. This can be accounted for by the overwhelming predominance of French in the learning environment.

Although no test results were available for accurate comparisons with peer groups it appeared that the English speakers functioned well on the four basic linguistic skills of French (oral production, auditory comprehension, written production, written comprehension). Teachers did claim that they were sometimes weaker than their French speaking schoolmates in written production in French. This may be connected with age of entry into the school. For the French speakers skill in English was nowhere near native-like ability (apart from the exceptional pupils who joined the native speaker English classes) though achievement on the four skills, and particularly on oral production in English, appeared higher than average compared with children in schools where English is not given such preeminence. Again this is an impressionistic estimation since no comparative results based on standardised tests have been made. However, the apparent superiority of the children in this school can be accounted for not only by the importance given to English throughout the curriculum, but also by the fact of the presence of such a large number of English-speaking children in the school. It should be mentioned, however, that French is the language of communication most frequently used between the two populations in a mixed group, particularly in the playground.

Although the programme was not designed specifically to promote positive attitudes towards the language and culture of the English-speaking world such attitudes appear to arise spontaneously, thanks to the "normalness" of English in the curriculum right from the outset and the numerical significance of the English speaking children. Once a week an informal lunch table is organised where the meal, presided by English teachers, is taken in English. Some of the French speakers select this English table on a voluntary basis. Apart from the weekly lunch table the only clear attempt on the part of the school to promote positive attitudes towards English is the organisation of exchange visits with international rather than national schools, e.g. with the S.H.A.P.E. school, the British school and the American school in Belgium.

School C differed considerably from school B in its organisation of the bilingual programme, though there were points of similarity. In school C the two languages involved were French and Dutch. As is the case with all children attending school in the Brussels area, Dutch was an obligatory part of the curriculum from the age of 8 onwards. However, it was only in the secondary school that a special programme was provided which gave greater importance to Dutch than is normally the case in a French school. For pupils between the ages of 12-15 a two-tier system was available for

Dutch, depending on ability. Weaker pupils followed the standard programme of Dutch as a second language in Brussels while stronger pupils followed a so-called bilingual programme. This consisted of a more advanced level of Dutch as a second language, together with history and geography lessons in Dutch. Candidates for the stronger course, or bilingual programme, were selected on the basis of examination results with 80% scores in Dutch and 70% in most other subjects. Pupils following the bilingual programme received 5 hours of Dutch per week, 2 hours of history and 1 of geography in the first year. In the third year this total of 8 hours per week contact with Dutch was reduced to 6 (3 hours of Dutch, 2 hours of history, 1 of geography) due to other time-table commitments. At the end of the three-year bilingual programme the stronger group continued to receive more advanced tuition in the Dutch language and its literature but history and geography were again taught through the medium of French. This switch of languages for history and geography was determined by purely practical reasons, i.e. the need to take final examinations in these subjects in French.

Materials used as the basis of the bilingual programme were tailored to meet the needs of the population. For the language lessons pupils used more advanced materials than those of their peers in the standard classes. For example, 13 years-olds would be working on materials normally introduced with 15-16 year olds though they were still specifically designed for learning Dutch as a second-language. For the history and geography lessons the same type of materials were used as in Dutch language schools in Holland or Belgium, though teachers occasionally used French terms to help clarify an obscure point.

It should be pointed out that the homework load for pupils following the bilingual programme in school C was considerably heavier than for those following the standard programme. This was entirely due to the nature of the bilingual programme where standards were particularly exacting.

Staff involved in the bilingual programme were mostly native speakers of Dutch, though not all, and had received normal teacher training for their subjects as directed towards French speakers.

Linguistic achievement at the end of the programme was good. Examinations in the different subjects were modelled on those used in Dutch-language schools though the expectancy level was suitably modified to suit the non-native speaker pupils. Performance on the four basic linguistic skills was inferior to that of the native speaker but considerably

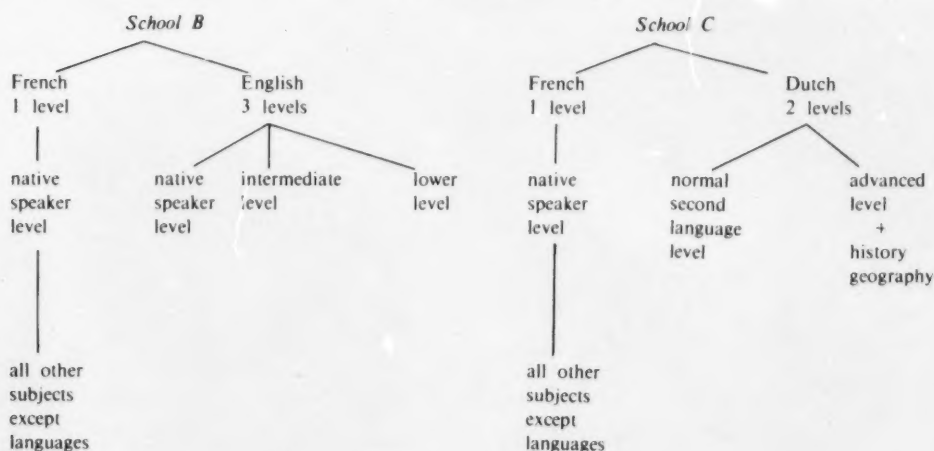
higher than that attained by parallel groups following the standard programme of Dutch as a second language.

As with school B, pupils from this school had increasingly positive attitudes towards the "other" language and its representatives as they proceeded through the programme. This was particularly encouraging in pupils whose political allegiance in the Belgian context would normally imply hostility to the Dutch language community. Few overt attempts on the part of the school were made to encourage such positive attitudes though as with school B exchange visits were again orientated towards schools where the "other" language was dominant, in this case with schools in the Netherlands.

An interesting sidelight to the organisation of the bilingual programme in this school was that it led to an elitist mentality amongst those pupils who followed the course; this was to be accounted for by the selection criteria. Consequently, there were cases of attempted parental pressure on the school to include children not considered suitable for the advanced nature of the programme. School C itself tries to minimise this effect by presenting the programme as an option based on practical criteria and in this way differs little from school B with its three-tier system for English. However it does not have the advantage of numerical balance that school B has.

Figure 2 gives a schematic representation of the two programmes compared so far.

FIG. 2



School A is a case apart in that it did not run a "bilingual" programme, though it finds its place in this report by the very nature of its existence. This school was specifically created for children of "immigrants" from favoured socio-economic backgrounds in response to problems encountered through the bilingual nature of the environment in which they were placed.

Certain parents closely involved in the educational progress of their very young children were worried by the fact that their offspring had difficulty in assimilating into the French language primary school to which they had originally been sent. The children showed signs of withdrawal, fear of school, a refusal to participate in activities, no attempt at making contacts with their peers and a general hostility to the French speaking environment around them. These features were prominent in very young children, somewhat surprisingly when one considers the generally accepted belief that very young children have little difficulty in switching languages when they first attended school. School A grew into being as a conscious attempt to provide a transition school in which English speaking children of primary school age could receive their first contact with school in their own language. The aim was to give a solid foundation in the native tongue before transfer to some French speaking school at a later stage. It should not be concluded, however, that all children in school A had had problems in French language schools; for some parents the choice was a logical one in answer to their temporary needs as they were not intending to stay in Belgium for a protracted period of time.

The justification for the firm grounding in English was felt necessary when it was realised that these young children were not only failing to assimilate into the French environment but were also being deprived, in the French schools, of the linguistic enrichment they would normally have received from peer group contacts in their own language. Unlike less favoured immigrant children who tend to live in close proximity to others of their language greater affluence led to geographical dispersion of residence patterns so that the favoured children could not so easily make contact with other children from their own linguistic group.

The programme in school A was orientated towards the British primary system with the exception that three quarters of an hour were devoted to activities in French on four afternoons per week. These were led by a native speaker with experience in teaching French as a foreign language. Given the age of the children the activities took the form of songs, games, drawing lessons, naming objects, etc. To help bridge the gap between

English and French, French culturally orientated materials were used whenever the nature of the subject allowed. For instance, in arithmetic lessons the metric system was used rather than imperial standards, money lessons were conducted using francs, the local environment was continually referred to in talking about the outside world. All teachers were native speakers of English, except for the French teacher, with appropriate training, as can be expected given the nature of the curriculum.

Achievement in French was only minimal, due to the age of the children and the restricted amount of time devoted to the language. Nevertheless it was felt that those children who would later transfer to French schools would have a solid background in their native language as well as some elementary notions of French which would help them to settle in. Children who were returning to their country of origin would have received sufficient grounding in reading, writing and arithmetic to preclude any difficulties in adaptation. One major drawback with the programme provided in this school was that in spite of the French lessons it was perfectly possible for a child who showed some resistance to French to find himself not really being able to function adequately in the language of the majority community outside his school and home.

DISCUSSION

Investigation of school A has shown that children from better-off parents may have problems similar to those of other immigrant children but which are rendered more acute by the life-style patterns of their parents. Many reports on bilingual education (e.g. Skutnabb-Kangas) indicate that lack of success at school with bilinguals is often connected with low economic status and semi-lingualism. However, it appears that better-off children too may have difficulties in adapting to a bilingual environment, though perhaps for different reasons. Isolation may be one important factor for these children, caused by smaller family units, greater geographical dispersion and the life-style of the parents (by life-style is meant a tendency to discourage play in the street, to depend on car-transport for social contacts, to have more formalised social contacts). These characteristics may account for a certain deprivation in contacts with native language peer groups as well as other language peer groups. (An interesting sidelight to problems faced by children of better-off parents who move from country to country with great frequency is that even when education is consistently followed in the native language in dif-

ferent parts of the world pupils often have linguistic problems coupled with behaviour difficulties. This observation was attested by a teacher in an English school with a large percentage of pupils in this situation.) As one of the interviewees from school A commented, children making their first encounter with education may find it a rather frightening experience when this occurs in a totally foreign language ;

"A feature of education for small children is their need to learn to socialise. Children who have not succeeded in a French school are often timid and solitary and often aggressive in social contact. At the same time they desperately want to join in but don't know how. They have learnt to switch off and don't listen. They are insecure and cling to the teacher, are happier in the classroom than in the playground. In view of this they must learn first to be happy and confident in the school situation before any learning can take place. This usually takes a term, even longer. The classroom organisation is vital. The authoritarian classroom does not promote communication between children and cooperative effort. The permissive classroom overawes the timid child. Something in between is necessary to inspire security and contact."

Two things are striking in this comment : the need to learn to socialise and the case of the timid child, both inter-connected. Several children had been transferred from French speaking schools to school A because they did not know how, or have the linguistic means at their disposal, to make contacts with other children. This had sometimes led to behaviour problems, lack of concentration and nervousness, together with hostile attitudes towards the other language, the language of the school. The acuity of these problems vindicates the recommendation put forward by the Strasbourg Conference on the Education of Migrants (Conseil de l'Europe, 7) to lead children to a minimum threshold knowledge of the language of the host country school before regular integration into its programme.

School A's programme was also largely determined by the strong belief that the very young child should first acquire a solid foundation in its native language before starting to learn the host country language. More and more specialists will confirm this belief in the interests of developing the child's personality. The report of the Strasbourg conference states ;

"Nous avons notamment compris l'importance qu'il convient de donner à la langue du pays d'origine, ou à la langue maternelle, pour développer le sentiment d'identité et pour créer une base solide qui permettra le développement de l'intelligence fonctionnelle et d'attitudes mentales stables et harmonieuses". (CONSEIL DE L'EUROPE, 19).

The Swedish education authorities take a similar standpoint ;

"The insight of the great importance of a child's first language for its forming of concepts, language development and thus also the learning of a second language has more and more become a part of the public consciousness" (Ek, 7).

If any criticism were to be made of school A's programme it would perhaps be based on the fact that so relatively little place is given to the learning of the second language of the outside environment. However, this could be countered by the importance given to instruction in reading and writing in the first language, a time-consuming operation. Many parents from upper income brackets take a strong interest in developing these skills in the native language and often undertake to teach their children themselves in cases where the children attend non-native language schools. School A felt that the English children required a firm grounding in reading and writing in their native language before being expected to learn to read and write in a foreign language. Anderson has conducted experiments on pre-school reading in two languages which tend to corroborate this assumption, indicating that learning to read in L1 facilitates easy transfer in learning to read in L2. As has already been noted, in cases where the host country school does not provide this type of instruction in L1 the upper income bracket parent will often take matters into his own hands. An extension of this is the case of the Japanese school in Brussels that caters for the children of diplomatic and business executives, teaching them not only the Japanese language but cultural elements too. This school operates on Wednesday afternoons, all day Saturday and Sunday, and Japanese children attend after normal lessons in other Belgian schools. It is evident that this represents an extremely heavy load for any child and also allows for little contact with parents outside school hours. It is the strong desire, on the part of these parents, to maintain links with the native language and culture that motivates the acceptance of this burden.

If we consider the three schools that have been investigated a pattern of education in a bilingual environment emerges quite clearly. From school A one can note the desirability of some transitional stage where young children can receive their first contact with school in their home language. The overwhelming predominance of the first language, however, may not adequately meet the requirements imposed by the outside environment, though attempts are made to satisfy these. Research carried out by

Tucker and d'Anglejan has shown that first contact with school can be successfully carried out in two languages where both are given equal importance so that a predominantly monoglot programme need not be a necessary goal as long as the first language is given sufficient consideration.

School B went some way to achieving balance at the kindergarten level, where both languages appear to be given equal importance, though in the primary school it was the foreign language that became dominant for the English speakers. From primary level onwards only four hours per week were devoted to the native language, whereas the Swedish education authorities recommend six hours per week in the initial stages, reduced to four hours per week later (Report Ds U 1975 : 13). The existence of special classes with native speaker teachers in school B did meet the desire to ensure a good grounding in reading and writing in the first language. The fact that all children in this establishment learnt each other's language (at different levels of ability) was an interesting feature that led to mutual respect and understanding, though this can be partly accounted for by the numerical significance of both groups and the equal prestige of the two languages involved. On the whole School B's bilingual programme can be considered a success for both groups of children perhaps due to its continuous nature throughout the curriculum. Titone (162) has highlighted the success of programmes introducing the study of a second language early on in education, though he stresses the need for continuity throughout schooling for this success to be maintained (344). School B provides this continuity though it does not push its bilingual programme to a point where non-language subjects are taught in a second language (except of course for the English speakers who have most of their subjects in French).

School C went one stage further by providing history and geography lessons in the second language, although only for a three year period. One drawback involved with this was the heavy homework commitment. Although school C was conscious of the elitist mentality generated by its bilingual programme, the programme itself should not be condemned for this. Indeed, it might be argued that in cases where one of the languages concerned has little prestige in the eyes of the majority group increased satisfaction in studying subjects in the minority language could be a positive element.

All schools laid great importance on the rôle of the native speaker teacher, considering it the only possible solution for meeting the

requirements of the immigrant child. It should be pointed out that the provision of native speaker teachers did not go without difficulties for the schools involved, given present legislation in Belgium.

A final point that should be underlined is that all schools claimed that as a result of their attempts a better understanding and greater tolerance of the "other" linguistic community was achieved. The importance of this factor, as Lambert (230) has pointed out, cannot be neglected.

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

- ANDERSON, T. : An Investigation of Preschool Reading in Two Languages, *AILA World Congress, Stuttgart*, 1975.
- ANDERSON, T. & BOYER, M. : *Bilingual Schooling in the United States*, Austin Southwest Educational Lab., 2 vols., 1970.
- Brussels Times*, No. 523, September 4, 1975.
- Conseil de l'Europe : Actes de la conférence ad hoc sur l'éducation des migrants, Strasbourg, 1974*, Centre de Documentation pour l'éducation en Europe, CME/IX (75) 7, 1975.
- EK, M. : *Report on Auxiliary and Bicultural Teaching of Immigrants' Children in the Swedish 9 Year Comprehensive School*, The National Swedish Board of Education, 1974.
- FREDDI, G. : *Bilinguisme et biculturalisme*, Centre Mondial d'Information sur l'Education Bilingue (CMIEB), Paris, 1975.
- GAARDER, B. : *Essays on Bilingual Schooling in the United States*, Newbury House, Rowley, Mass., Forthcoming.
- GAARDER, B. : Organization of the Bilingual School, in *Journal of Social Issues*, 1967, XXIII, 110-120.
- LAMBERT, W. E. : A Social Psychology of Bilingualism, in *Language, Psychology and Culture*, ed. by A. S. DILL, Stanford University Press, Stanford, California, 212-235, 1972.
- MACKEY, W. F. : *Éducation bilingue et éducation biculturelle*, Centre Mondial d'Information sur l'Education Bilingue (CMIEB), Paris, 1975.
- MACKEY, W. F. : *Bilingual Education in a Binational School*, Newbury House, Rowley, Mass. : Forthcoming.
- MACNAMARA, J. : The Effects of Instruction in a Weaker Language, in *Journal of Social Issues*, XXIII, 120-134, 1967.
- VON MALTITZ, F. W. : *Living and Learning in Two Languages : Bilingual-Bicultural Education in the United States*, McGraw Hill, New York, 1975.
- National Swedish Board of Education : Report Ds U 1975 : 13, 1975.
- O'HUALLACHAIN, C. : Bilingualism in Education in Ireland, in *Georgetown University Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics*, 15, 75-84, 1962.

- RIPOCHE, J. : Résultats d'une enquête sur les réactions des élèves au plurilinguisme à l'École Européenne de Bruxelles, in *Enfance*, no. 1, 89-98, 1966.
- SOFFIETTI, J. : Bilingualism and Biculturalism, in *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1955, 46, 222ff.
- SPOLSKY, B., GREEN, J. B. & READ, J. : Model for the Description, Analysis and Perhaps Evaluation of Bilingual Education, in *8th World Congress of Sociology, Toronto, August 18-23, 1974*.
- TITONE, R. : *Le bilinguisme précoce*, Dessart, Brussels, 1974.
- TUCKER, G. R. & D'ANGLEJEAN, A. : *An Approach to Bilingual Schooling : The St. Lambert Experiment*, McGill University, 1971.

ANNEXE

H.B.B. Sept. 1975

QUESTIONNAIRE : COMMISSION

Name of School/Nom de l'Établissement :

Address/Adresse :

Head/Direction :

Fees p.a./Inscription par an :

No. of teachers/Nombre de professeurs :

Nationality of teachers/Nationalité des professeurs :

No. of pupils/Nombre d'élèves :

No. of classes/Nombre de classes :

No. of pupils per class/Nombre d'élèves par classe :

Age-group per class/groupe d'âge par classe :

No. of pupils per class and per nationality/Nombre d'élèves par nationalité et par classe :

ling. group.

groupe ling.

Major lang. of instruction/Langue usuelle de l'école :

Other langs. taught/Autres langues enseignées :

Other langs. used as vehicle of instruction/autres langues d'instruction :

No. of pupils receiving major part of instruction in L2 + reasons/Nombre d'élèves recevant la plus grande partie de l'enseignement en L2 + raisons :

Selection criteria for entry into school/Critères de sélection pour l'admission à l'école :

Socio-economic background of pupils/Origine sociale des élèves :

Inspectors/Inspecteurs :

Objectives of the school/Finalité de l'école :

Qualifications of teachers involved in lang. programmes (i.e. special training)/Qualifications des enseignants impliqués dans le programme ling. (c-à-d. formation spéciale) :

Organisation

Time devoted to L1 and subjects in L1/Temps consacré à L1 et aux matières enseignées en L1 :

Time devoted to L2 and subjects in L2/Temps consacré à L2 et aux matières enseignées en L2 :

Time devoted to other L's/Temps consacré à d'autres langues :

Breakdown of subjects taught in L1/Detail des matières enseignées en L1 :

Breakdown of subjects taught in L2/Matières enseignées en L2 :

Is the programme aligned in any part on that of schools in Belgium, U.K., America, etc./Le programme est-il aligné dans une certaine mesure sur celui des écoles belges, anglaises, américaines, etc. :

Are the contents of a programme in 1 lang. directly related to e.g. History of England in English, geography of France in French, English Literature in English, etc./Dans chaque langue, choisit-on le contenu du programme en fonction de cette langue, par ex. histoire d'Angleterre en anglais, géographie de la France en français, littérature française en français, etc. :

Reasons for choice of subjects taught in a particular lang./Raisons pour le choix d'une matière spécifique enseignée dans une des langues :

Materials used for L1, per subject/Matériaux employés pour L1, dans chaque enseignement :

Materials used for L2, per subject/Matériaux employés par L2 dans chaque enseignement :

Methodology for lang. instruction in L2/Méthodologie pour l'enseignement de L2 :

Sélection criteria for entry on L2 programme/Critères de sélection pour l'entrée dans le programme en L2 :

Homework in L1, nature and amount/Devoirs en L1, nature et quantité :

Out-of-school activities in L1/Activités en L1 en dehors de l'école :

Out-of-school activities in L2/Activités en dehors de l'école en L2 :

Cultural promotion of L1 within school, nature and time allotted/Promotion culturelle de L1 à l'école, nature et temps y consacré :

Cultural promotion of L2 within school, nature and time allotted/Promotion culturelle de L2 à l'école, nature et temps y consacré :

Percentage of success and failure on academic programme/Pourcentage de réussites et d'échecs :

How many pupils do the same year again/Pourcentage de doubleurs :

Nature of examinations/Nature des sanctions :

Are exams parallel to those normal in L1 system of languages taught/Les examens sont-ils les mêmes que ceux appliqués dans le pays en L1 :

For children with problems in 1 of the langs., are there any special extra lessons/Y a-t-il des cours de rattrapage pour des élèves ayant des problèmes dans 1 des langues :

No. of children with problems in L1/Nombre d'élèves ayant des problèmes en L1 :

Nature of the problems/Nature des problèmes :

No. of children with problems in L2/Nombre d'élèves ayant des problèmes en L2 :

Nature of the problems/Nature des problèmes :

Comparability with monoglot children in home country on the four skills/Comparaison dans les quatre aptitudes entre les élèves et les enfants unilingues du pays dont on étudie la langue :

Comparability with monoglot children in L2 on the four skills/Comparaison entre les élèves et ceux du pays dont on étudie la L2 :

Do the 12 langs. ever get used in 1 lesson, if so which/Les 2 langues sont-elles employées dans 1 seule leçon, si oui, laquelle :

Is there a relationship between ability in the subject and the lang. in which it was taught/Y a-t-il un rapport entre la compétence dans une matière et la langue de l'instruction :

General degree of contact with L1 culture outside school/Degré de contact avec la culture de L1 en dehors de l'école :

General degree of contact with L2 culture outside school/Degré de contact avec la culture de L2 en dehors de l'école :

Measures taken to cultivate positive attitudes to both cultures/Mesures prises pour cultiver des attitudes positives envers les deux cultures :

How are language/culture conflicts dealt with/Comment résout-on les conflits de culture/de langue :

General attitude of children to L2 culture a) on entry to programme, b) on exit/Attitude générale des élèves envers la culture de L2 a) au début du programme, b) à la fin :

What signs of anomie and how widespread/Y a-t-il des signes d'anomie et dans quelle mesure l'anomie se manifeste-t-elle :

ATTITUDES

1. What is parental attitude to bilingual programme/Quelle est l'attitude des parents envers le programme bilingue :
2. What is pupil attitude towards the programme/Quelle est l'attitude des élèves envers le programme :
3. Is motivation instrumental or integrative/La motivation est-elle instrumentale ou intégrative ?
4. To what extent do children have preference of 1 lang./culture over another/Dans quelle mesure les élèves préfèrent-ils une langue ou une culture à une autre :
5. What are pupils attitudes to other children from L2 background/Quelles sont les attitudes des élèves envers d'autres enfants de la culture 2 :